#### Three.V Change of Basis

Linear Algebra
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## Changing representations of vectors

#### Coordinates vary with the bases

*Example* Consider this vector  $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^3$  and bases for the space.

$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathcal{E}_3 = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle \quad B = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle$$

With respect to the different bases, the coordinates of  $\vec{v}$  are different.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{\mathcal{E}_3}(\vec{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\2\\3 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \operatorname{Rep}_{B}(\vec{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\2\\1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Here we will see how to convert between the two representations: given two bases for a space we want a formula that converts the representation of a vector with respect to the first basis to the representation with respect to the second.

#### Change of basis matrix

If we think of translating from  $\operatorname{Rep}_B(\vec{\nu})$  to  $\operatorname{Rep}_D(\vec{\nu})$  as holding the vector constant then this is the appropriate arrow diagram.

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...1 Definition The change of basis matrix for bases  $B, D \subset V$  is the representation of the identity map  $id: V \to V$  with respect to those bases.

$$Rep_{B,D}(id) = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ Rep_{D}(\vec{\beta}_{1}) \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} \cdots \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ Rep_{D}(\vec{\beta}_{n}) \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

1.3 Lemma Left-multiplication by the change of basis matrix for B, D converts a representation with respect to B to one with respect to D. Conversely, if left-multiplication by a matrix changes bases  $M \cdot \text{Rep}_B(\vec{v}) = \text{Rep}_D(\vec{v})$  then M is a change of basis matrix.

Proof The first sentence holds because matrix-vector multiplication represents a map application and so  $\text{Rep}_{B,D}(\text{id}) \cdot \text{Rep}_B(\vec{v}) = \text{Rep}_D(\text{id}(\vec{v})) = \text{Rep}_D(\vec{v})$  for each  $\vec{v}$ . For the second sentence, with respect to B, D the matrix M represents a linear map whose action is to map each vector to itself, and is therefore the identity map.

Example Two bases for  $\mathfrak{P}_2$  are  $B=\langle 1,1+x,1+x+x^2\rangle$  and  $D=\langle x^2-1,x,x^2+1\rangle$ . Compute  $\operatorname{Rep}_{B,D}(\operatorname{id})$  in the same way that we compute the representation of any function: find  $\operatorname{Rep}_D(\operatorname{id}(1))$ ,  $\operatorname{Rep}_D(\operatorname{id}(1+x))$ , and  $\operatorname{Rep}_D(\operatorname{id}(1+x+x^2))$ .

$$\operatorname{Rep}_D(1) = \begin{pmatrix} -1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \operatorname{Rep}_D(1+x) = \begin{pmatrix} -1/2 \\ 1 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \operatorname{Rep}_D(1+x+x^2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

We put them together into the change of basis matrix.

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1/2 & -1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

For instance, we have this.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{B}(2-x+3x^{2}) = \begin{pmatrix} 3\\ -4\\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$
  $\operatorname{Rep}_{D}(2-x+3x^{2}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2\\ -1\\ 5/2 \end{pmatrix}$ 

The change of basis matrix does indeed do the conversion.

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1/2 & -1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 5/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

1.5 Lemma A matrix changes bases if and only if it is nonsingular.

Proof For the 'only if' direction, if left-multiplication by a matrix changes bases then the matrix represents an invertible function, simply because we can invert the function by changing the bases back. Because it represents a function that is invertible, the matrix itself is invertible, and so is nonsingular.

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**Proof** For the 'only if' direction, if left-multiplication by a matrix changes bases then the matrix represents an invertible function, simply because we can invert the function by changing the bases back. Because it represents a function that is invertible, the matrix itself is invertible, and so is nonsingular.

For 'if' we will show that any nonsingular matrix M performs a change of basis operation from any given starting basis B (having n vectors, where the matrix is  $n \times n$ ) to some ending basis.

If the matrix is the identity I then the statement is obvious. Otherwise because the matrix is nonsingular Corollary IV.?? says there are elementary reduction matrices such that  $R_r\cdots R_1\cdot M=I$  with  $r\geqslant 1$ . Elementary matrices are invertible and their inverses are also elementary so multiplying both sides of that equation from the left by  $R_r^{-1}$ , then by  $R_{r-1}^{-1}$ , etc., gives M as a product of elementary matrices  $M=R_1^{-1}\cdots R_r^{-1}$ .

We will be done if we show that elementary matrices change a given basis to another basis, since then  $R_r^{-1}$  changes B to some other basis  $B_r$  and  $R_{r-1}^{-1}$  changes  $B_r$  to some  $B_{r-1}$ , etc. We will cover the three types of elementary matrices separately; recall the notation for the three.

$$M_{i}(k) \begin{pmatrix} c_{1} \\ \vdots \\ c_{i} \\ \vdots \\ c_{n} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{1} \\ \vdots \\ kc_{i} \\ \vdots \\ c_{n} \end{pmatrix} \quad P_{i,j} \begin{pmatrix} c_{1} \\ \vdots \\ c_{i} \\ \vdots \\ c_{j} \\ \vdots \\ c_{n} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{1} \\ \vdots \\ c_{j} \\ \vdots \\ c_{i} \\ \vdots \\ c_{n} \end{pmatrix} \quad C_{i,j}(k) \begin{pmatrix} c_{1} \\ \vdots \\ c_{i} \\ \vdots \\ c_{j} \\ \vdots \\ kc_{i} + c_{j} \\ \vdots \\ c_{n} \end{pmatrix}$$

Applying a row-multiplication matrix  $M_i(k)$  changes a representation with respect to  $\langle \vec{\beta}_1, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_i, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_n \rangle$  to one with respect to  $\langle \vec{\beta}_1, \ldots, (1/k) \vec{\beta}_i, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_n \rangle$ .

$$\vec{v} = c_1 \cdot \vec{\beta}_1 + \dots + c_i \cdot \vec{\beta}_i + \dots + c_n \cdot \vec{\beta}_n$$

$$\mapsto c_1 \cdot \vec{\beta}_1 + \dots + kc_i \cdot (1/k) \vec{\beta}_i + \dots + c_n \cdot \vec{\beta}_n = \vec{v}$$

The second one is a basis because the first is a basis and because of the  $k \neq 0$  restriction in the definition of a row-multiplication matrix.

Applying a row-multiplication matrix  $M_i(k)$  changes a representation with respect to  $\langle \vec{\beta}_1, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_i, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_n \rangle$  to one with respect to  $\langle \vec{\beta}_1, \ldots, (1/k) \vec{\beta}_i, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_n \rangle$ .

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Similarly, left-multiplication by a row-swap matrix  $P_{i,j}$  changes a representation with respect to the basis  $\langle \vec{\beta}_1, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_i, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_j, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_n \rangle$  into one with respect to this basis  $\langle \vec{\beta}_1, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_j, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_i, \ldots, \vec{\beta}_n \rangle$ .

$$\vec{v} = c_1 \cdot \vec{\beta}_1 + \dots + c_i \cdot \vec{\beta}_i + \dots + c_j \vec{\beta}_j + \dots + c_n \cdot \vec{\beta}_n$$

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And, a representation with respect to  $\langle \vec{\beta}_1, \dots, \vec{\beta}_i, \dots, \vec{\beta}_i, \dots, \vec{\beta}_n \rangle$ changes via left-multiplication by a row-combination matrix  $C_{i,j}(k)$ into a representation with respect to  $(\vec{\beta}_1, \dots, \vec{\beta}_i - k\vec{\beta}_i, \dots, \vec{\beta}_i, \dots, \vec{\beta}_n)$ 

into a representation with respect to 
$$(\beta_1, ..., \beta_i - k\beta_j, ..., \beta_j, ..., \beta_n)$$
  

$$\vec{v} = c_1 \cdot \vec{\beta}_1 + \dots + c_i \cdot \vec{\beta}_i + c_j \vec{\beta}_j + \dots + c_n \cdot \vec{\beta}_n$$

$$\rightarrow c_1 \cdot \vec{\beta}_1 + \dots + c_i \cdot (\vec{\beta}_i - k\vec{\beta}_i) + \dots + (kc_i + c_i) \cdot \vec{\beta}_i + \dots + c_n \cdot \vec{\beta}_n = \vec{v}$$

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(the definition of  $C_{i,j}(k)$  specifies that  $i \neq j$  and  $k \neq 0$ ). QED 1.6 *Corollary* A matrix is nonsingular if and only if it represents the identity map with respect to some pair of bases.

# Changing map representations

The natural next step for us is to see how to convert  $Rep_{B,D}(h)$  to  $Rep_{\hat{B},\hat{D}}(h)$ . Here is the arrow diagram.

$$egin{array}{cccc} V_{wrt\; B} & \xrightarrow{h} & W_{wrt\; D} \ & & & & & & \downarrow \ V_{wrt\; \hat{B}} & \xrightarrow{\hat{H}} & W_{wrt\; \hat{D}} \end{array}$$

To move from the lower-left to the lower-right we can either go straight over, or else up to  $V_B$  then over to  $W_D$  and then down. So we can calculate  $\hat{H} = \operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{B},\hat{D}}(h)$  either by directly using  $\hat{B}$  and  $\hat{D}$ , or else by first changing bases with  $\operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{B},B}(\mathrm{id})$  then multiplying by  $H = \operatorname{Rep}_{B,D}(h)$  and then changing bases with  $\operatorname{Rep}_{D,\hat{D}}(\mathrm{id})$ .

$$\hat{H} = \text{Rep}_{D,\hat{D}}(id) \cdot H \cdot \text{Rep}_{\hat{B},B}(id) \tag{*}$$

Example Consider the derivative map d/dx:  $\mathcal{P}_2 \to \mathcal{P}_2$ , and consider also these two pairs of bases  $B = \langle 1, 1+x, 1+x+x^2 \rangle$ ,  $D = \langle 1+x^2, x, 1-x^2 \rangle$  and

We can find H and Ĥ using the methods we have already seen.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{B,D}(d/dx) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{B},\hat{D}}(d/dx) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 0 & -1/2 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 1/2 & -1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

To do the conversion we find these.

 $B = \langle 1, x, x^2 \rangle, D = \langle 1 + x, x + x^2, 1 + x^2 \rangle.$ 

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{\mathbf{B}},\mathbf{B}}(\mathrm{id}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \operatorname{Rep}_{\mathbf{D},\hat{\mathbf{D}}}(\mathrm{id}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1/2 & -1 \\ 1 & -1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Equation (\*) says that this equals  $\operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{B},\hat{D}}(d/dx)$ .

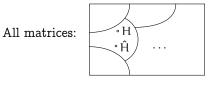
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1/2 & -1 \\ 1 & -1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Exercise 19 checks that matrix equivalence is an equivalence relation. Thus it partitions the set of matrices into matrix equivalence classes.



H matrix equivalent to Ĥ

#### Canonical form for matrix equivalence

2.6 Theorem Any  $m \times n$  matrix of rank k is matrix equivalent to the  $m \times n$  matrix that is all zeros except that the first k diagonal entries are ones.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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This is a *block partial-identity* form.

$$\begin{pmatrix} I & Z \\ Z & Z \end{pmatrix}$$

**Proof** Any  $m \times n$  matrix of rank k is matrix equivalent to the  $m \times n$  matrix that is all zeros except that the first k diagonal entries are ones.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

QED

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*Example* These two matrices are not matrix equivalent because Gauss's Method shows that the first has rank 3 while the second has rank 2.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 & 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 0 & 5 & 1 \\ 3 & -5 & 9 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$